Deriving the Quasar Luminosity Function from Accretion Disk Instabilities

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ABSTRACT

We have derived the quasar luminosity function assuming that the quasar activity is driven by a thermal-viscous unstable accretion disk around a supermassive black hole. The instabilities produce large amplitude, long-term variability of a single source. We take a light curve of a single source and calculate the luminosity function, from the function of time it spends at each luminosity. Convolving this with an assumed mass distribution we fit well the observed optical luminosity function of quasars at four redshifts. As a result we obtain the evolution of the mass distribution between redshifts 2.5 and 0.5.

The main conclusions are following: 1) The quasar long-term variability due to the disk thermal-viscous instabilities provides a natural explanation for the observed quasar luminosity function. 2) The peak of the mass function evolves towards lower black hole masses at lower redshifts by a factor ~ 10. 3) High mass sources die subsequently when redshift gets smaller. 4) The number of high mass sources declines rapidly, and so low mass sources become dominant at lower redshift. 5) The periodic outbursts of activity appear as long as the matter is supplied to the accretion disk. 6) Since the time-averaged accretion rate is low, the remnant sources (or sources in the low activity phase) do not grow to very massive black holes. 7) A continuous fuel supply at a relatively low accretion rate ($\sim 0.01 - 0.1\dot{M}_{Edd}$) for each single source is required over the lifetime of the entire quasar population.

Subject headings: accretion: accretion disks - cosmology:theory - quasars:general

1. INTRODUCTION

The quasar luminosity function has been studied for the last 30 years and is observationally now quite well determined as a function of redshift for $z < 4$ (e.g. Boyle et al, 1991). However, there have been few attempts to derive the luminosity function from physical models of the quasar power engine. There are three possible phenomenological scenarios (Cavaliere & Padovani, 1988): long-lived objects, recurrent objects (possibly related to galaxy mergers) and a single short event over the whole host galaxy life-time. Continuous models imply masses for the remnant black holes that are too large, and accretion rates that are too low (Cavaliere et al 1983; Cavaliere & Szalay 1986; Cavaliere & Padovani 1988, 1989; Caditz, Petrosian & Wandel, 1991).

Short-lived models have been studied more recently. Haehnelt & Rees (1993) assumed that new quasars were born at successive epochs with a short active phase followed by a rapid exponential fading due to exhaustion of fuel. They used the Cold Dark Matter formalism (Press & Schechter, 1974) to estimate the number of newly forming dark matter halos at different cosmic epochs. Small & Blandford (1992) suggested a scenario involving a mixture of continuous and recurrent activity. They assumed that newly formed sources achieve the Eddington luminosity quickly, such that the accretion rate is limited by radiation pressure. The break in the luminosity function is related to the boundary between the continuous and intermittent accretion phases originating in the amount of fuel supply to the black hole.

However, none of these models relate directly to the physical processes responsible for powering a quasar. They simply invoke sources that emit at the Eddington luminosity for a certain time and then fade below an observational threshold. Here we describe a scenario which for the first time derives the luminosity function from a specific physical process.

The time evolution of an accretion disk around a supermassive black hole (the main components of the standard quasar paradigm), exhibits large variations on long timescales due to thermal-viscous instabilities (Siemiginowska, Czerny & Kostyunin 1996, hereafter SCK96, Mineshige & Shields 1990). Depending on the assumed disk model, variations of up to a factor $\sim 10^4$ can be produced on timescales of $10^4 - 10^6$ years. Here, we assume that all quasars are subject to this variability. We then take the light curve of a single source and calculate the luminosity function of a population of identical sources from the fraction of time it spends at each luminosity. Convolving this with an assumed mass distribution we fit the observed quasar luminosity function at four redshifts. As a result we obtain the evolution of the mass distribution between redshifts 2.5 and 0.5.

2. EVOLUTION OF AN ACCRETION DISK

Accretion onto a supermassive black hole is the leading model for powering quasars (e.g. Rees 1984). The accretion process is frequently described by the model of a stationary thin disk (Lynden-Bell 1969, Shakura & Sunyaev 1973). However, there are both observational and theoretical arguments indicating that time-dependent effects in accretion process are of extreme importance. Observationally, the evidence for global evolutionary effects is compelling in accretion disks around Galactic X-ray sources. Outbursts (by factors $> 10^4$) of Cataclysmic Variables or X-ray novae last for weeks or months and happen every few months to years. The outbursts are essentially caused by the disk thermal instability in the partial ionization zone (Meyer & Meyer-Hoffmeister 1982, Smak 1982, see also Cannizzo 1993 for review). There is a strong similarity between Galactic X-ray sources and AGN both in spectral behavior and overall variability (Fiore & Elvis 1994, Tanaka & Lewin 1995) which leads us to expect similar accretion disk behavior in AGN. However, as the characteristic timescales are roughly proportional to the central mass, the expected variability takes thousands to millions of years in AGN. Since these timescales are not directly observable, these changes have been considered little more than a curiosity in AGN.

Theoretically, accretion disks around the massive black holes in AGN are expected to have a partial ionization zone, as in Galactic binaries, and therefore to be subject to the same instability (Lin & Shields 1986, Clarke 1989, SCK96). Current models of the time evolution of accretion disks in AGN have confirmed the presence of disk eruptions (Clarke & Shields 1989, Mineshige & Shields 1990, SCK96).

SCK96 considered a geometrically thin Keplerian accretion disk around a supermassive black hole and assumed that the viscosity scales with the gas pressure ($\tau_{r\phi} = \alpha P_{gas}$). They found that, depending on the viscosity, the instability can either develop only in a narrow unstable zone, or can propagate

over the entire disk resulting in large amplitude optical/ultraviolet outbursts ($\sim 10^4$) (see Fig. 1a). The calculation of these light curves is at present computationally demanding (SCK96).

3. FROM LUMINOSITY VARIATIONS TO THE LUMINOSITY FUNCTION

3.1. A single mass, single accretion rate population.

The luminosity function of a population of quasars with the same mass and accretion rate is given simply by the product of a fraction of time one source spends in each luminosity bin and their space density. In Fig.1b we show the fraction of time a source emits at each luminosity, relative to the Eddington luminosity, for the light curve shown in Fig.1a. The luminosity range is between $10^{-4}L_{Edd}$ and L_{Edd}. The shape of the function reflects the fact that the amplitude of each outburst is not constant and the variability is not precisely periodic. The details of each outburst and the overall variability characteristics depend on the physics of the accretion disk and the assumptions of the model. These details average over many outbursts (usually a few hundred over $10^8 - 10^9$ years).

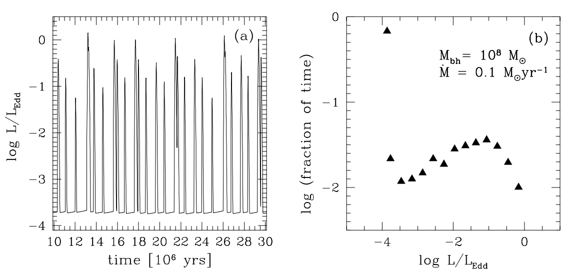

Fig. 1.— a) Luminosity variations due to the disk instabilities around a black hole of $10^8 M_{\odot}$, when the accretion rate is 0.1 $M_{\odot}$ yr^{-1} and the viscosity parameter is different in the high and low states: $\alpha_{hot} = 0.1$ and $\alpha_{cold} = 0.025$. b) Fraction of the time the source emits at a given luminosity for $10^8 M_{\odot}$ and $0.1\dot{M}_{\odot}\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ accretion rate. The luminosity is given in the Eddington luminosity units.

A single source will spend about $\sim 75\%$ of its life in quiescence ($L < 0.001L_{Edd}$) and about $\sim 25\%$ in an active state, with $\sim 10\%$ in a high state ($L > 0.1L_{Edd}$). Likewise in a population ~10% of sources will be in the high state, ~25% will be active and ~75% in quiescence at any given time.

There are two characteristic transition points in the function shown in Fig.1b: a broad maximum at $\sim 0.1L_{Edd}$ and a minimum at $\sim 0.001L_{Edd}$. When we construct a luminosity function for a realistic population these features will be modified by the distribution of accretion rates and masses. A range of accretion rates affects the low luminosity part of the curve by smoothing at the minimum. The maximum at $\sim 0.1L_{Edd}$ is caused by the fraction of outburst amplitudes reaching close to the Eddington luminosities. The maximum is thus smoothed by the distribution of black hole masses.

3.2. Fit to the Observed Luminosity Function.

The luminosity in Fig.1b. is expressed in terms of the Eddington luminosity, in order to make the function independent of the central mass (see Fig.2a "1-mass" luminosity function). Thus for a given distribution of black hole masses we can calculate the quasar luminosity function. The luminosity function is defined as:

$$\Phi(L, z) = \int \Phi(L, z, M)N(M, z)dM$$

where $\Phi(L, z, M)$ describes which central mass contributes to a given luminosity bin at a given redshift and $N(M, z)$ represents a number of sources with a given central mass at a given redshift. The mass density function $(N(M, z)M)$ can be derived, with assumptions, from cosmological models and theoretical models on the formation of the structures in the universe (Heahnelt & Rees 1993, Small & Blandford 1992). Here we do not consider any particular model for the formation of the black holes, galaxies and quasars. Instead we assume, arbitrarily that $N(M, z)$ can be represented by a simple parabola. We then fit the observed luminosity function from Boyle et al (1991) at different epochs varying the peak, position and width of the parabola. The mass function is convolved with the single mass luminosity function (Fig.1b). We held $\dot{M}$ constant, and so did not change the minimum in Fig.1b. However, this minimum is not within the range covered by the Boyle et al (1991) data.

We were able to obtain good fits (Table 1) to the luminosity function at three of four redshifts as shown in Fig. 2a. The black hole mass density function re-

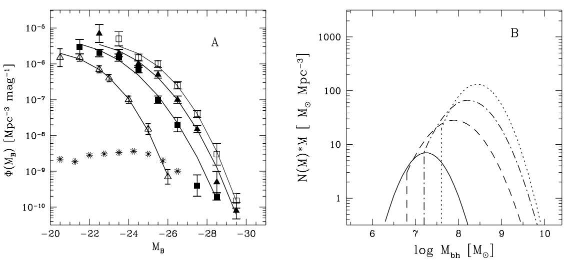

Fig. 2.— (a) Observed luminosity function (Boyle et al 1991) at four redshifts indicated by points with error bars: $0.25 < z < 0.75$ - open triangles, $0.75 < z < 1.25$ - filled squares, $1.25 < z < 2.00$ - filled triangles, $2.00 < z < 2.90$ - empty squares. The predicted single mass luminosity function is indicated with the stars. The model luminosity function is plotted with the solid line. (b) The predicted black hole mass density function at each epoch obtained from the fit to the observed luminosity function: $0.25 < z < 0.75$ - solid line; $0.75 < z < 1.25$ - dashed line $1.25 < z < 2.00$ - dashed-dot line $2.00 < z < 2.90$ - dotted line. The truncation at the mass required by the lowest luminosity data point is indicated by the straight lines at the lowest mass point for each parabola.

quired by the fit is plotted in Fig. 2b and the parameters of the fit are given in the Table 1. The poor fit at redshift ∼1 is due to the highest luminosity point which seems to require a kink in the luminosity function. We fit the data excluding this point and obtain a good fit (Table 1). The mass density peaks at lower mass in this case, since the luminosity function ends at lower luminosity.

Only active sources contribute to the black hole mass density function. The maximum indicates which central black hole mass dominates the population at each redshift. This peak mass declines from $\sim 2 \times 10^7 M_\odot$ at $z \sim 2.5$, to $\sim 2 \times 10^6 M_\odot$ at $z \sim 0.5$ with most of the change occuring between $z \sim 1.75$ and $z \sim 1$ (Table 1). The mass density of high mass sources gets smaller rapidly (e.g. a factor ∼ 100 at $M = 10^9 M_\odot$) with lower redshift, while the peak mass density declines by less than a factor 2. The relative constancy of this peak implies that the *number* of sources at the peak remains constant between $z = 2.5$ and $z = 1$, and then decreases by a factor of ∼ 2 between redshift $z = 1$ and $z = 0.5$. The low mass end of the distribution is not constrained by the data and so we truncate the functions at the mass where the Eddington limit gives the lowest observed luminosity. This lowest luminosity point of the observed luminosity function at $z = 2.5$ ($L_{Edd} \sim 8 \times 10^{44}$ ergs s^{-1}) gives the limit of $6.3 \times 10^7 M_\odot$. Even if less massive sources are present in the population we cannot see them.

4. DISCUSSION

We have shown that the thermal-viscous instability provides a natural mechanism to generate the quasar luminosity function. We were able to fit the observed luminosity function and estimate the parameters of the mass density function, independent of cosmological models. The overall shape of the mass density function and the evolution of the peak of the mass distribution towards lower masses with lower redshift are similar to the results obtained by previous studies (Haehnelt & Rees 1993, Small & Blandford 1992). The 30% "on" fraction in these models is also comparable with the fraction of active time input light curve (Fig.1b). This is not too surprising because the same observational luminosity function was used in all the studies.

The problem of whether the low mass sources are present at high redshift or are born subsequently remains unsolved. In our scenario this question could be answered by extending the observed luminosity function at z$\gtrsim$1 fainter by $\Delta m \sim 3$. If the fitted mass functions match the low z mass density functions these would suggest that all quasars are born at the same time and the high mass ones "burn out" much more quickly. This scenario, in which single mass density function declines more rapidly at high

redshift z	Log M_{peak}	log $N(M_{peak})$	χ^2
2.0 - 2.9	8.1	-5.30	2.78
1.25 - 2.0	7.7	-5.33	4.98
0.7 - 1.25	7.3	-5.34	12.79
	6.9	- 5.38	3.48 [a]
0.3 - 0.7	6.9	-5.52	1.18

[a] excluding the highest luminosity data point at redshifts $0.7 < z < 1.25$

luminosities, is strikingly different from the conventional "pure luminosity evolution" that is used to describe the apparent fading of the whole observed luminosity function to lower z. It reminds us of the warning by Green (1985) against interpreting phenomenological descriptions as physically meaningful.

Looking at the sources in the present epoch should provide the information on the lowest luminosity end of the distribution together with the contribution of the massive sources. However, the luminosity of the host galaxy becomes comparable to the nuclear luminosity for low mass black hole and it is hard to observed the nucleus of a normal galaxy even if it contains an accretion disk in the active state ($L \sim L_{Edd}$). On the other hand Seyfert nuclei are found in $\sim 10\%$ of galaxies, consistent with the high state fraction from SCK96. The problem is how can we see the low mass sources in quiescence.

The high luminosity end of the luminosity function accounts for all the high mass sources which are active at each epoch. The number of these sources gets smaller with redshift. This decrease is often supposed to relate to the limited fuel supply and the mechanisms of transfer of the matter into the disk. We note though that the location and the size of the ionization zone depends on the accretion rate onto the outer edge of the disk (SCK96, Clarke & Shields 1989). For high accretion rates this zone moves towards outer regions of accretion disk. In the case of the high mass black holes the ionization zone can be pushed out to the self-gravitating regions of the disk and the instability will not develop. The source then remains in the active state until the fuel supply is exhausted, and then dies. How the location of the ionization zone affects the global evolution of the population requires further study.

Another consideration that could lead to the more rapid demise of high mass quasars is that massive sources require more fuel than the low mass sources to emit at a given L/L_{Edd}. Only $\sim 0.027 M_\odot \mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ is needed to power a $10^6 M_\odot$ black hole at 0.1 $\dot{M}_{Edd}$, while a $10^9 M_\odot$ black hole requires accretion rates of order $2.7 M_\odot \mathrm{yr}^{-1}$. Recent studies of quasar host galaxies, (at z$<$ 0.3), show that the most luminous quasars reside in the most massive galaxies, while lower luminosity quasars can be found in any type of a galaxy (McLeod & Rieke 1995a, 1995b; Bahcall et al 1996). Based on the HST observations of 61 elliptical galaxies Faber et al (1996) conclude that about $\sim 1\%$ of the galaxy mass is contained within a central core of few parsecs. This means that for a typical $\sim 10^{11} - 10^{12} M_\odot$ galaxy, there is about $10^9 - 10^{10} M_\odot$ available to feed a black hole. While at $10^6 M_\odot$ it would last for $10^{11} - 10^{12}$ years at $10^9 M_\odot$ it would last for 10^9 years at 0.1 $\dot{M}_{Edd}$.

A third possibility is that the, unknown, mechanism responsible for transferring the matter towards the central potential well and into the outer parts of accretion disks becomes s rapidly less efficient in massive systems, so they would systematically die young.

Recently Yi (1996) considered the cosmological evolution of quasars assuming that advection becomes important for accretion rates below $0.01 L_{Edd}$ accretion rate. The theoretical and observational studies of the X-ray transients suggest that advection is important in quiescence below a critical accretion rate (Narayan & Yi 1994, Narayan et al 1996). Advection has not been included in our accretion disk model. It will modify the low luminosity part of the light curve in Fig.1a and influence the quasar evolution. We shall include the advection in our further studies, since the quasar remains in quiescence for $\sim 75\%$ of its life.

In previous studies the sources making up the luminosity function were assumed to begin by emitting at their Eddington luminosities and steadily becoming fainter with time. This does not apply in our model. The stationary accretion rate onto the outer edge of the disk can be much lower than the Eddington limit. This prevents accumulation of a large mass in the center and removes the problem of creating overly massive quasars remnants.

Small & Blandford (1992) suggested two phases of the quasar activity, which are related to the accretion rate. Just after a black hole is born the matter is supplied at super-Eddington rates, but the actual accretion onto the black hole is limited by the radiation pressure. The black hole accretes continuously at the Eddington rate until the fuel supply gets lower and then the accretion is intermittent. The intermittent activity can be related to the active state of the disk in our scenario.

The model we use to produce the quasar luminosity function works for the optical/ultraviolet bands. The radio and X-ray luminosity function show similar form and evolution (Maccacaro et al. 1992, Della Ceca et al 1994). Physically the radio and X-ray luminosities must then be a result of the accretion disk state.

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